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ABSTRACT

By analyzing the subject matter of journalism books published in China since 1903, a study reviews the scope and trends of Chinese journalism studies, specifically the post-1949 developments after the Chinese Communist Party came to power. The study analyzes 1,245 titles of journalism books from 1903 to 1985, compiled in the "China Journalism Yearbook" from 1982 to 1986 and the "China Television Broadcasting Yearbook 1986" and considers the subject matter of the books published and when they were published. Findings included: (1) political and economic development in China had a direct impact on journalism studies in China; (2) scope of journalism was very narrow with three emphases--print journalism theory, skills, and history; (3) half of the books were written by single authors; (4) foreign sources played a significant role in China's journalism development; (5) Beijing and Shanghai were the two major publishing centers in China; (6) the Chinese journalism studies development was similar to United States journalism development as reviewed by Wilbur Schramm in 1957; and (7) the Chinese experience did not have the facilitating factors identified by Schramm that had contributed to United States journalism growth. (Forty notes and 14 tables of data are included; 30 references and two appendixes containing the codes used in the study and a list of Chinese provinces and regions are attached.) (MS)

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JOURNALISM STUDIES IN CHINA, 1903-1985

by

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Journalism Studies in China, 1903-1985

Abstract

This paper reviews the scope and trends of journalism studies in China by analyzing subject matters of 1,245 journalism book titles published since 1903, when the first journalism book was published in China. It emphasizes post-1949 development when the Chinese Communist Party came to power. Further, the findings were used to compare with U.S. journalism development.

The study found that (1) political and economic development in China has a direct impact on journalism studies in China; (2) scope of journalism was very narrow with three emphases--print journalism theory, skills and history; (3) half of the books were written by single authors; (4) foreign sources played a significant role in China's journalism development; (5) Beijing and Shanghai were the two major publishing centers in China.

The study also found that the Chinese journalism studies development is similar to U.S. journalism development reviewed by Schramm in 1957. However, the Chinese experience did not have the facilitating factors identified by Schramm that had contributed to U.S. journalism growth. According to Schramm, the growing importance of research stressed by U.S. journalism schools was the major driving force in its growth. A comparable situation has yet to be developed in China.

Based on these findings, the study suggests an expansion of journalism scope in China. First, journalism studies should go beyond print journalism theory, skills and history. Second, more studies should be conducted to better understand the relationship between the press or the media and society. Third, the communication processes and effects can be further explored in China. Fourth, foreign ideas and books should continue to be introduced in China. Fifth, an integrated and inter-disciplinary approach should be adopted to understand and design the communication policy in China.

Journalism Studies in China, 1903-1985

I. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This paper seeks to review the scope and trends of Chinese journalism studies. It will do so by analyzing subject matters of journalism books since 1903, when the first journalism book was published in China.[1] Specifically, it emphasizes post-1949 developments when the Chinese Communist Party came to power. The findings may show differences in the scope and trends of journalism studies before and after 1949. They may outline the "uniquely socialist style of journalism" the Chinese communist leaders have sought to establish. They also could serve as a basis for comparing developments with that of journalism studies in other countries, such as the United States.

The paper analyzes titles of journalism books from 1903 to 1985, compiled in the China Journalism Yearbook from 1982 to 1986 and the China Television Broadcasting Yearbook 1986. It considers two questions: (1) what were the subject matters of the books published, and (2) when were they published?

II. BACKGROUND

A. A COMPACT HISTORICAL REVIEW OF JOURNALISM DEVELOPMENT BEFORE 1949

The development of journalism studies in China can be divided into five stages, according to Qian Xinbo, a veteran journalism educator and former head of a journalism graduate institute (China Journalism Yearbook 1986, p. 72). They are: (1) 1833-1894, embryo stage--from the publishing of the first true newspaper to the defeat of the Chinese in the Sino-Japanese war, which led to intellectuals' advocacy of reforms; (2) 1895-1917, formative stage--from the Chinese-language newspapers established by foreigners and Chinese intellectual's advocacy journalism to the early years after the overthrow of the Qing imperial emperors; (3) 1918-1941, rise and growth of bourgeois journalism--from the establishment of the first journalism department to the beginning of socialist style journalism; (4)

1942-1976, growth of proletariat and classless journalism--from Mao Zedong's speech on the rectification of incorrect work styles and the reforms of the Communist mouthpiece, Jiefang Ribao (Liberation Daily), to the fall of "Gang of Four";[2] and (5) 1977-1985, growth of "Chinese socialist style" journalism after the introduction of liberal economic course and a more open policy.[3] The five stages will be used in this study to compare changes over time. Since this paper, however, seeks to compare the differences before and after 1949, the fourth stage will be sub-divided into 1942 to 1949, and 1949 to 1976.

The development of journalism before 1949 can be further divided into different phases related to the political and economic developments, according to journalism historians Ge Gongzhen (1955) and Zeng Xubai (1973). The subdivisions of Chinese journalism development before 1949 are: (1) the official newspapers published by the imperial government from Han Dynasty (206 B.C.-220 A.D.) to Qing Dynasty (1644-1911); (2) newspapers published by foreigners in China brought the first Chinese-language newspaper in China; (3) advocacy publications which put forward reform ideas when China wanted to strengthen itself after the defeat in the Sino-Japanese war in 1894; (4) advocacy journalism continued until the May Fourth Movement in 1919 and the Northern expedition against the warlords; (5) then newspapers combined into profit-making ventures and tools of political ideas until the anti-Japanese war broke out in 1937; (6) and the final stage before the Communist takeover (Ge, 1955, p. 21; Zeng, 1973, pp. 191-208).

The periods specified by Ge, Zeng and Qian can be combined for this study's analysis framework. While Ge and Zeng covered developments before 1949, Qian included the developments after 1949. The division of stages show two factors shaping China's journalism developments: (1) political and economic development and (2) foreign influence. But in 1949, when the Communist Party took over, a major difference in the economic and political

system occurred. The study will examine how the two factors shape the course of journalism development in China between 1903 and 1985.

Although Qian's five stages began in 1833, journalism did exist before then. Newspaper publication was the first form of journalism in China. Di Bao, a publication for the central and provincial governments' internal communication, is generally believed by journalism historians to be the first form of newspaper (Fang, 1981, p. 1). In 1638, printing was first used to publish the gazette-type Di Bao. Before that, Di Bao was hand written (Li, 1985, p. 4). Then, at the end of Ming dynasty (1610-1695), a newspaper distribution center was established in Beijing to distribute the Jing Bao (Capital Newspaper) nationwide. In his article "On the Contribution of Newspapers to National Affairs," Liang Qichao said "Chinese Di Bao was developed before newspapers were popular in the West, but for several hundred years, it has never been widely promoted" (Li, 1985, p. 9). Since most newspapers from the Tang Dynasty (618-907) to late Qing Dynasty (1644-1911) were mouthpieces of the government, Ge (1955) even labeled this early period of journalism, the monopoly of government newspapers.

Then, there was a significant Western influence on Chinese press and its evolution into modern form (Fang, 1981, p. 10; Liang et al, 1986, p. 25). In the early 19th century, when the British were expanding their sphere of influence into China, missionaries followed (Li, 1985, p. 9). In 1827, a British opium merchant established the Canton Register, the first foreign language publication in China, for the expatriate community (Li, 1985, p. 10; Zeng, 1973, p. 9 and 125; Ge, 1955, p. 64). Between 1840 and 1890, the English and Chinese publications put out by foreigners in China totalled 170, about 95 percent of all Chinese publications during that period. Most were published by missionaries (Fang, 1981, p. 18). With the assistance of Western press and know how, the first Chinese-language daily newspaper,

Zhong Wai Xin Bao (Chinese and Foreign News Newspaper) was established in Hong Kong in 1858 (Li, 1985, p. 15; Zeng, 1973, p. 11; Ge, 1955, p. 68). Since then, the "bourgeois press" appeared in Hong Kong, Guangzhou, Shanghai, Hankou, and Fuzhou (Fang, 1981, p. 60).

These Chinese-language newspapers took on an important task of advocating government reform (Li, 1985, p. 21; Zeng, 1973, p. 10 and 192). For example, the Xun Huan Ribao (Circular Daily News), founded in January 1874, was the first advocacy newspaper that carried a daily commentary advocating reform in China (Fang, 1981, p. 66; Li, 1985, p. 21). Its editorial writer and publisher Wang Tao (1828-1897) was considered the pioneer in promoting self-strengthening (Fang, 1981, p. 66). This helped lay the foundation of the press' emerging role as an important outlet for intellectuals, such as Kang Youwei (1858-1927) and Liang Qichao (1873-1929), during the Weixin Reform, or the "Hundred Days Reform" covering June 11 to September 21, 1898 (Zeng, 1973, p. 14). Chinese journalism historians characterize this development as an important development, signaling the departure from "missionary journalism" to "reform advocacy journalism," which advocated democratic reform and the strengthening of China (Li, 1985, p. 36-7; Ge, 1955, p. 177). Zeng (1973, p. 193) said "reform advocacy journalism" began in 1895 and continued through 1918.

Following political changes in China, the Chinese press also underwent significant changes (Zeng, 1973, p. 16 and 193). The changing role of the press was marked by Sun Yat Sen (1866-1925), the founding father of China's first republic, and his associates' Zhongguo Ribao (China Daily) in 1899--the pioneer in Chinese democratic revolution (Zeng, 1973, p. 194; Fang, 1981, p. 157). Zhongguo Ribao and other publications brought western democratic and scientific ideas, as well as communist and socialist ideologies. During the last days of the Qing dynasty, the Qing government also published official newspapers to counter

those "reactionary" ideas (Li, 1985, p.67). A publication law was promulgated in 1906 and a press law in 1908, though not "effectively carried out" (Ting, 1974, p. 44). About 90 newspapers were registered in the capital in the eight months following the Qing emperor's resignation (Li, 1985, p. 80). During the early years of the young republic, Yuan Shikai adopted the Newspaper Act in April 1914 to suppress opposition voices.

Communist ideas were introduced in China with the publication of the magazine, Xin Qing Nian (New Youth) by Chen Duxiu (1880-1942) in 1916 (Li, 1985, p. 94). Xin Qing Nian, renamed of the Youth Magazine founded on September 15, 1915, was instrumental in forming the Chinese Communist Party in August 1919 (Li, 1985, p. 125; Liang et al, 1984, p. 134). Socialist ideas were first spread to China in early 19th century (Fang, 1981, p. 426). The name Karl Marx first appeared in China in 1899 in a missionary publication (Fang, 1981, p. 426). Then on July 14, 1919, Mao Zedong (1893-1976) founded the Xiang Jiang Ping Lun (River Xiang Commentary). On September 23, 1931, the Shanghai Journalism Research Society was established. It was the first organization to study and promote proletariat journalism theory and practice (Liang et al, 1986, p. 305).

The growth of newspapers (for example the total number of newspaper increased from 139 in 1913 to 280 in 1919) signaled a need of formal journalist training. In 1918, a journalism research society affiliated with Peking University was established in Beijing. Cai Yuanpei, the widely respected president of Peking University, said in the society's opening speech that journalism needed to be recognized as an academic discipline. Cai introduced the first journalism course in Peking University in 1918. The course was taught by Xu Baohuang (1894-1930), a Beijing Chen Bao (Morning News) editor who had studied at the University of Michigan in the United States in 1912 (Fang, 1981, p. 747). The teaching materials of the course were compiled in a book called The Collected Essays of Journalism

(Li, 1985, p. 102; Zeng, 1973, p. 674). The book marked the beginning of formal journalism education in China. In 1903, translation of journalism books were available, but truly Chinese journalism work did not exist until Cai's efforts (Li, 1985, p. 102).

In 1920, St. John's University in Shanghai established a journalism department, the first of its kind in a Chinese university (Zeng, 1973, p. 674). In 1923, The Common People University established a journalism department with the assistance of a newspaper, Jing Bao, and Shao Piaoping (1884-1926), a veteran journalist (Li, 1985, p. 143; Fang, 1981, p. 742). Shao's teaching materials were edited into a book entitled Practical Journalism--the first book on news reporting in China. The recommended texts for the course were Harrington and Trankenberg's Essentials in Journalism and Given's The Making of a Newspaper (Ge, 1955, p. 260).

Subsequently, journalism departments were established in International University and Yenching University in Beijing; Fudan University and Guang Hua University in Shanghai; and Xiamen University in Fujian (Ge, 1955 p. 259). Between 1920 and 1929, 12 journalism departments were established in colleges, as well as two independent journalism training schools (Liang et al, 1986, p. 230).

The early development of journalism education showed a strong American influence. The influence was shown in three forms: (1) use of American journalism books as textbooks, (2) use of American professors as department chairs or visiting professors (for example, the journalism department of Yenching University was established by American professors and U.S. funds in 1924), and (3) further education of Chinese students in the United States, particularly under the auspices of the exchange program with University of Missouri (Fang, 1981; Liang et al, 1986, p. 230; Zeng, 1973, p. 676). For example, the dean of Missouri's school of journalism was in China and gave a lecture

on world journalism in 1921 (Li, 1985, p. 144; Zeng, 1973, p. 676). In the 1930s, Western journalism educators played an important role in shaping Chinese journalism education (Liang, 1947; Nash, 1931 and 1934). In 1941, the University of Missouri presented Da Gong Bao (Ta Kung Pao) the Missouri award (Li, 1985, p. 287). In 1943, the Central Propaganda Department of the Nationalist government established the first journalism college with the assistance of Columbia School of Journalism in the United States (Zeng, 1973, p. 684).

The growth of journalism education also coincided with the growth of newspapers. By 1921, 1,134 publications were registered, 550 of which were dailies (Li, 1985, p.143). By 1926, the number of dailies increased to 628, and there were 155 news agencies.[4] In 1936, there were 1,763 newspapers. But the anti-Japanese war, which began in 1937, led to a steady decrease of newspapers. In 1938, there were 414 newspapers, a drop of 59 percent from 1937's total of 1014. The Sino-Japanese War had made it difficult for news gathering and distribution, thus leading to the decline of newspapers. But the war gave rise to the increased importance of radio as a fastest means to disseminate late information about the war. Since the Nationalist and Communist Parties formed a united front to combat the Japanese invasion during the war, communist publications co-existed with those of nationalist's, although there were some interference (Li, 1985, p. 238).

Table 1 about here

Many communist publications were suppressed, but not totally banned. In November 1931, a Red China News Agency was formed. In 1933, a special radio station was used as another means to propagate communist ideas. A civil war between the Nationalist and Communist parties began after the successful expulsion of the Japanese. In September 1, 1943, Director of Propaganda of the Communist Party, Lu Ding Yi, criticized the "Three-People

(meaning the principles of 'of the people, by the people and for the people') Journalism Theory" (Li, 1985, p. 284). When the Communist Party took power in 1949, a new direction of journalism philosophy and practice began.

B. JOURNALISM DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1949

Even though "communist" journalism historians recognize significant developments after Peking University's first journalism course introduced in 1918, they still consider them "bourgeois journalism" (Li, 1985, p. 155). The "proletarian and classless journalism," according to them, began in 1942 when Mao Zedong suggested the ratification of incorrect styles and launched the press reform by the official mouthpiece, Jiefang Ribao. One of the reforms was to "involve all people in publishing newspapers" (Liang et al, 1986, p. 514). Thus, a large correspondence network, principally made up of readers, was set up nationwide.

After the Communist party gained control of the mainland in 1949 and the Nationalist government took Taiwan island, mainland Chinese journalism--the focus of this study--developed in different forms.[5] Journalism development in communist China shows a twisting course, strongly affected by the political and economic changes between 1949 and 1985. This could be summarized into: (1) reliance of Soviet assistance until the withdrawal of Soviet experts from China in 1960; (2) economic failures of the First Five-Year Plan (1953-1957); (3) The "Hundred Flowers Campaign" in 1957 and its subsequent purge of intellectuals in the "Anti-rightist Movement"; (4) failure of the "Great Leap Forward" economic policy in 1958; (5) the ten-year Cultural Revolution covering 1966 to 1976; and (6) the new liberal economic course adopted in 1978 which allowed renewed foreign, particularly Western, cooperation.

Economically, the national average income index from the six Five Year Plans between 1953 and 1985 showed the ups and downs in the Chinese economy.[6] The Fist Five-Year Plan (1953-1957) showed

an 8.9 percent increase of national average income. But the Second Five-Year Plan's (1958-1965) national average income showed a decline of 3.1 percent. In the adjustment stage (1963-1965), the index went up to 14.7 percent. Then the Third Five-Year Plan (1966-1970) showed an 8.3 percent increase. The index declined to 5.5 percent in the Fourth Five-Year Plan (1971-1975). The index increased steadily in the Fifth Five-Year Plan (1976-1980) and Sixth Five-Year Plan (1981-1985) by 6 percent and 9.7 percent, respectively.

Table 2 about here

The political and economic trends can be seen in the development of newspaper growth between 1949 and 1984. In his review of newspaper development from 1950 to 1981, Dai Bang (1983) of the Journalism Institute of the Chinese Academy of Social Science suggests that the total copies of newspapers printed have increased 2,000 times in the past 31 years. But he concedes that this growth, for both political and economic reasons, has been erratic. First, there was a steady increase between 1950 and 1956. The total copies of newspapers printed increased from 8 million to 26.1 million, or 226 percent. The 1957 anti-rightist movement caused a slight decline compared to 1956. Another decline occurred in 1961 and 1962 when the economy was weak. Then from 1966 to 1970, during the "most chaotic years of the Cultural Revolution," there was a decline. But since 1971, when order was gradually restored, the increase has been steady. After the "Gang of Four" clique was crushed in 1976, even sharper increases resulted.

Table 3 about here

A similar pattern can be seen in the publishing activities between 1949 and 1983. Statistics[7] show that the total types of books published between 1950 and 1960 increased sharply. But, in 1967, the year after the outbreak of the Cultural Revolution, the

total types of books decreased by 76 percent in comparison with 1950, and more than 700 percent if compared to 1965. Compared to the level in 1950, the books published between 1967 and 1973 declined on the average of 51.6 percent. The highest decline of 70.2 percent came in 1969 and the lowest decline in 1973, with 11.7 percent. After 1978, the total number of books published has increased sharply each year. The period between 1958 and 1966 was the peak for the translation in China. Translation activities were almost non-existent from 1966 to 1976.

Table 4 about here

Both the statistics on newspapers and books growth show the most drastic decline occurred with the ten-year tumultuous Cultural Revolution. Practically the entire educational system was shattered, and some colleges were forced to close. Few, if any, journalism books were published during these ten years. All current Chinese leaders admit that 1976, the year of the arrest of the "Gang of Four," was a watershed in contemporary political and economic development. The Third Plenary session of the Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party held in December, 1978 approved a major change in policy. It decided China would focus on "Four Modernizations" in agriculture, industry, national defense and science and technology.

Since then, China has adopted a more "open" policy with increased foreign contacts. This also has meant a renewal of outside assistance. In the 1950s, China relied on the Soviet assistance. China banned the activities of United States Information Agency in July 1949 and all foreign news agencies in August 1949 (Li, 1985, p. 354). Between 1949 and 1951, Sino-American cultural contact was lost completely (Cohen, 1987, p. 44). Significant Soviet influence in China was marked by the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed in February 1950 and ended in August 1960, when Soviet experts pulled out of China. Then China entered a period of "self-reliance," with a

"closed door" policy. But the dramatic normalization of diplomatic relationship with the United States in January 1979 signaled a steady increase of American influence in all fields.

One aspect is that more students furthered their studies in Western countries. For more than a century, with the exception of the period from 1967 to 1974, Chinese students have been studying abroad, frequently in large numbers (Bullock, 1987, p. 29). Statistics show that in the pre-1950 era, about 30,000 Chinese students studied in America, and at least 10 times as many studied in Japan (Lampton, 1986, p. 18). During the 1950s, about 13,500 students studied in the Soviet Union (Lampton, 1986, p. 21). Both American and Chinese records show that the number of Chinese students and scholars coming to the United States has grown dramatically since 1978. From 1979 to 1983, 19,872 scholarly exchange visas were issued to PRC Chinese (Lampton, 1986, p. 32; Orleans, 1988, pp. 88-89). It was estimated that 36,000 PRC students were in the United States at the end of 1987, the highest number of all foreign students.[8] Of these students, some are in the field of journalism. For example, the University of Missouri renewed its training of PRC students and the University of Hawaii also provided journalistic training to PRC journalists and students.

Efforts to meet the growth of journalism studies and practices in China continue. The number of journalism departments, teachers, and students has increased sharply from 1980 to 1985.[9] In 1982, 14 colleges had journalism departments, but by 1986, the number increased to 33. The number of journalism teachers increased 382 percent (from 159 to 767) between 1980 to 1986. The number of journalism students increased 427 percent (from 941 to 4,967) between 1980 and 1986. This represents an increase of undergraduate enrollment of 537 percent (from 726 in 1980 to 4,626 in 1986), whereas graduate students enrollment increased 58 percent (from 215 in 1980 to 341 in 1986). The establishment of the first journalism graduate

institute under the Academy of Social Science in 1978 is an important development in journalism education and research in China.[10] All these developments meant that there was a greater demand of journalism books. More teachers and graduate students also meant more publications as a result of more research activities and interests. A 1983 national convention on journalism education in the next century estimated that about 5,000 journalism graduates will be needed annually.[11] This will mean a greater demand for journalism schools, qualified teachers, textbooks, and other teaching aids.

Table 5 about here

Significant changes in television and radio broadcasting development also have occurred since 1978. Radio, both wired and wireless, had contributed to the nation-building efforts in China. During the anti-Japanese war, it was a fast means to relay "life and death" messages. The communist government saw radio as an effective way to communicate and agitate the largely uneducated masses (Liu, 1964). More recently, the rapid development of television broadcasting has amazed Chinese communication watchers. Television broadcasting was introduced in 1958, and the last few years have seen an incredible growth in ownership of television sets in China. In 1987, China had the largest audience size in the world with 600 million television viewers.[12] Chinese radio and television broadcasters are trying to use these electronic media more effectively.

On the theoretical side, the traditional concept of journalism was expanded to incorporate the western concept of mass communication. This was introduced as a result of more contacts with western communication scholars. In September 1983, a book intended to introduce international mass communication concept was published by the International Journalism Research Section of the Journalism Research Institute of the Academy of Social Science.[13] In it, the current status of mass

communication theories and research of the West, notably the United States, United Kingdom, France, Italy, Japan and Yugoslavia, was outlined. Moreover, new courses, such as advertising and public relations, have been incorporated into journalism schools' curriculum. Therefore, it is expected that there were more books published on mass communication after 1978, not only journalism per se.

The structure of publishing companies and location of publishing centers also changed after 1949. Before 1949, most publishing companies were privately owned.[14] Shanghai, a cosmopolitan city, was the most flourishing publishing center, with the largest number of newspapers published (Fang, 1981, p. 60). The two largest publishing companies, the Commercial Press, the oldest publishing house founded in 1897; and Chung Hwa Books (Zhonghua Press), founded on January 1, 1912, and other individual companies were headquartered in Shanghai (Zhang, 1954).

The Chinese communist government abolished all privately owned publishing houses by 1956.[15] A specialization system for publishing houses was installed. For example, the Zhonghua Press was assigned to publish books about ancient China, merging in 1957 with Ancient Books Publishing House.[16] The Commercial Press was assigned to specialize in publishing foreign philosophy, social science books and foreign language study aides.[17] Specifically, Xinhua Publishing House was founded in May 1979 to specialize in books on journalism and politics.[18] By 1983, Xinhua Publishing House had published 100 books and four journals.

The center of publishing, meanwhile, moved from Shanghai to the new capital, Beijing--a political and economic center since 1949. By 1979, Beijing and Shanghai accounted for 60 percent of all publishing houses in China--Beijing had 94 and Shanghai, 14.[19] In 1956, 97 publishing houses existed in China. The number increased to 178 in 1977 and 292 in 1983.[20] Many

publishing houses, however, ceased to exist by order of the "Gang of Four" during the Cultural Revolution. In 1977, 39 publishing houses were reestablished.[21] All publishing houses were administered by a four-tier system: (1) 12 were directly under the National Publication Office; (2) 80 were under the Party Central, State Council, and national political bodies; (3) two were under the army; and (4) 80 were under the provincial, administrative and autonomous regions publication office.[22] Two characteristics emerge from this fact: (1) publishing houses are distributed according to geographical division, and (2) they are assigned specialized areas.

Table 6 about here

C. COMPARISON WITH U.S. JOURNALISM DEVELOPMENT

How is development of journalism studies in China compared with other countries? The study will compare its findings with that of U.S. journalism development. Specifically, the findings reported by Schramm (1957), Perloff (1976), and Weaver and Gray (1980) will be compared.

In his evaluation of "Twenty Years of Journalism Research" carried in the Journalism Quarterly from 1937-1956, Schramm (1957, p.93) found that the percentage of history and biography research was slowly but steadily falling. However, the trend in books, according to Schramm, was characterized by a great number of biographies and institutional histories (pp. 94-95).

Schramm (1957, p. 91) also found that journalism research had developed (1) from a almost wholly non-quantitative research to a fairly even balance between quantitative and qualitative method; (2) from the almost exclusive preoccupation with methods and viewpoints of humanities to behavioral sciences; (3) from printed media as the shadows of great personalities to part of a social process; and (4) from a local or national to a worldwide focus.

The reasons for this development, Schramm suggested, were: (1) the availability of basic data on the communication industry; (2) the rise of field research and other quantitative research tools; (3) the establishment of university research centers and other facilitating developments such as growth of marketing research. The more important direct driving force, Schramm believed, was a major concern and emphasis journalism schools placed on research.

In reviewing these developments, Schramm suggested the following directions for journalism research: (1) the relationship between press and society; (2) press as a communication process that looked at the communication process and effects, studies of why and how people read, and theory (pp. 101-107). In Schramm's opinion, communication effect remained a little understood area (p. 91).

Perloff (1976) provided an updated 20-year analysis of Schramm's study by analyzing the research published in the Journalism Quarterly from 1955 to 1974. He found that the use of quantitative methods had increased, from 51 percent in 1955-1964 to 60 percent in 1965-1974, while nonquantitative method decreased from 49 percent to 40 percent in the same periods. Perloff also found more articles about print media (58 percent in 1955-1964) than electronic media (6 percent) and articles about both media (17 percent). The numbers stayed about the same from 1965 to 1974.

Perloff said one reason why print articles may have dominated so heavily was because a large number of historical articles were published during both decades (1955-1974) when the only mass media were newspapers, magazines and books (p. 125).

Weaver and Gray's (1980) study is an analysis of journalism and mass communication research up to 1978. While they found that journalism research has been ignored by traditional scholarship, they believed that the pre-existing research has been "sporadic, disjointed and short-term, except for a few areas

which deal mostly with media uses and effects" (p. 144). Further, they suggested that the "well-developed journalism/mass communication research in this country has followed the interests and concerns of funding agencies as much or more as it has followed the autonomous interests of individual researchers" (p. 144). In addition, they observed that the field has moved from predominantly descriptive historical studies, to behavioral science studies, to present-day communication studies (p. 144).

Weaver and Gray suggested six areas for future research: (1) the impact of the social-intellectual climate on journalistic values, attitudes and performance; (2) the impact of new technology on journalism and on society at large; (3) trends, major issues and directions of media criticism; (4) media economics, role of the media in the industrial society, and implications for management and society; (5) possibilities, opportunities and methods of developing new sources of information and new information outlets; and (6) new historical approaches and fresh legal research on journalism (pp. 145-147).

The most comprehensive evaluation of communication, as it developed as a discipline, was carried in the Journal of Communication's summer 1983 special edition, Ferment in the Field. Scholars such as Wilbur Schramm, Everett Rogers and Steve Chaffee agreed that communication has gone beyond the "skills" level of journalism, and has established a recognized discipline that uses a more integrated approach of communication research.

This study will compare the ways in which the Chinese journalism studies are both different from or similar to U.S. journalism and mass communication development. The differences in political and economic structure after 1949 when the Chinese communist government was established in China will be given special consideration.

D. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the review of journalism development in China, this analysis of journalism book titles will examine the following

research questions:

1. What was the scope and trend of journalism studies in China between 1903 and 1985?
2. Did the political and economic development have an impact on journalism studies in China between 1903 and 1985?
3. What was the role of foreign influence on Chinese journalism development in China between 1903 and 1985?
4. What was the dominant form of authorship--whether books were by single authors, coauthors or institutions--between 1903 and 1985?
5. Which city or province was the publication center of journalism books between 1903 and 1985?
6. Which publishing company published the largest number of journalism books between 1903 and 1985?
7. How was the Chinese journalism development similar to and different from the development in the United States?

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A list of 1,245 journalism book titles complied in the China Journalism Yearbook 1982, 1982, 1984, 1985, 1986 and the China Television Broadcasting Yearbook 1986 were analyzed. The yearbook is the official and only authoritative yearbook on journalism and broadcasting development in China, and is the best source available. The titles were coded into the following categories:

1. THEMES: A list of 36 themes were developed to code the books. The list was developed by revising the categories used in the Journalism Quarterly index and Newspaper Research Journal index. The 36 themes were further collapsed into five categories: (1) print journalism theory, (2) print journalism skills, (3) print journalism history, (4) radio and television, and (5) other areas in the data analysis. For a complete list of the categories and their operationalization, see the coding form attached.

2. AUTHOR: The author(s) of the books, if known, was coded into: (a) single author, (b) coauthors, and (c) institution.

3. Translation: If the book was a translated work, the origin was coded into (a) Japan, (b) Soviet Union, (c) United Kingdom, (d) United States, and (e) other countries.

4. YEAR PUBLISHED: The year of the book published, if known, was recorded. To compare the differences before and after 1949, the books were classified into two periods: (1) pre-1949 (1903-1949), and (2) post-1949 (1949-1985). Then the two periods were divided into sub-periods for further analysis. They are: (1) Pre-Sino-Japanese War (1903-1937); (2) Sino-Japanese War (1938-1945);[23] (3) Post-war (1946-1948); (4) New Communist regime (1949-1965); (6) Cultural Revolution (1966-1977); and (7) Post-Cultural Revolution (1978-1985).[24]

5. PUBLISHER: The publisher of the book, if known, was coded into (1) provincial publishers, (2) university publishers, (3) Zhonghua Press, (4) Commercial Press, (5) Joint Publishing Company, (6) Xinhua Publishing House, (7) a newspaper or broadcast station's own publication, (8) journalism society's or journalist association's own publication, and (9) other publisher. This category will help determine any concentration of books published.

6. ORIGIN OF PUBLISHER: This was classified into 28 provinces and autonomous regions used by the Chinese government. (See appendix for list of provinces and autonomous regions). Specifically, Beijing and Shanghai will be examined for their role as publishing centers.

Correlation Analysis: The relationship among the number of books published, number of newspapers published, number of journalism books published, the average national income growth and the number of publishing houses in each province and major administrative cities was computed by using the Spearman rank-order correlation (rho). The strength of the correlation will be interpreted using Guilford and Williams' guideline: (1)

less than 0.20--slight correlation, almost negligible relationships; (2) 0.20 to 0.40--low correlation, definite but small relationship; (3) 0.40 to 0.70--moderate correlation, substantial relationship; (4) 0.70 to 0.90--high correlation, marked relationship; and (5) more than 0.90--very high correlation, very dependable relationship (Guildford and Williams, 1956, p. 145 quoted in Guido H. Stempel, III and Westley, 1981, p. 75).

Validity Check: Two issues were addressed in this validity check: (1) whether the list compiled by the editors of the Chinese Journalism Yearbook is complete, (2) whether the use of book titles only is adequate for the study.

For the first issue, the following procedure was taken. The researcher pulled out all the books classified under the "journalism" entry at the University of Michigan's Asia Library. All the journalism books published before 1949 and in the People's Republic of China after 1949 were cross checked with the list carried in the yearbook. Of the 34 books cross checked (eight were published before 1949), only one book is not on the yearbook's list. The only book that is not on the list is entitled, A Journalist Diary: Bits and Pieces After the Catastrophe. So, the list of book titles compiled in the yearbooks could be a comprehensive record.

On the second issue, the validity check involved the following procedures. After pre-testing the coding form, a number of books on the yearbook's list were coded by two Chinese students to establish inter-coder reliability. The books chosen for the inter-coder reliability were by two means: (1) all 34 journalism books in the University of Michigan's Asia Library were included, and (2) the personal collection of the researcher's own books were randomly selected (about 25 books were selected). Thus, a total of 59 books (about five percent of all books) was used for the inter-coder reliability and validity check. First, only the book titles were used for the coding.

Then, each coder was provided with the table of contents of the books. After more information on the books was provided, the two coders reviewed such data to see if a change in the original coding was necessary. This established the adequacy of using book titles only for the coding. The coding results showed that the inter-coder reliability for the coding using titles only was 96.3 percent. The coding results using book titles and with tables of contents was 90.74 percent. Therefore, the procedure taken above suggest (1) the reliability of the instruments used, (2) inter-coder agreement over coding content, and (3) validity of using book titles for the study through comparing the results of coding based on titles and tables of contents.

The inter-coder reliability for the actual coding for the following categories was: theme, 87.5 percent; author, 97.2 percent; origin, 97.2 percent; publication origin, 94.4 percent; and publishing location, 97.2 percent.[25]

G. FINDINGS

The findings are reported according to (1) number of books published each year, (2) themes, (3) authorship, (4) translations, and (5) publication companies and centers.

A. Number of Books Published Each Year

One thousand two hundred and forty five journalism books were published between 1903 and 1985. Almost three out of every ten books (387 books, 31.1 percent) were published before 1949, and six out of every ten books (812 books, 65.2 percent) were published after 1949. The date of publication of 46 books was not known.

A further breakdown shows that four out of every ten books (498 books, 40.0 percent) were published since 1978 when China adopted political and economic reforms. During the Cultural Revolution (1966-76), 50 books (4.0 percent) were published. This is less than the 135 books (10.8 percent) published during the Sino-Japanese war (1938-42).

Moreover, the number of books declined significantly between 1961 and 1977 (which covered the later half of the Second Five Year Plan to the Fourth Five Year Plan and the Cultural Revolution), averaging five books a year, with only 1975 published more than 10 books.

Table 7 about here

B. Themes of Books

Newswriting and reporting books were the most common theme (214 books, 17.2 percent), followed by bibliographies and books on personal recollections (193 books, 15.5 percent); and books about general Chinese journalism theories (146 books, 11.7 percent).

When the themes are grouped into the five categories, books about print journalism accounted for 930 books, 74.7 percent--with print journalism history as the most common theme (380 books, 30.5 percent), followed by print journalism skills (361 books, 29.0 percent) and print journalism theory (189 books, 15.2 percent). Books about other communication areas accounted for 233 books, 18.7 percent; while radio and television broadcasting books totaled 82, 6.6 percent.

Similar patterns were seen in the pre-1949 and post-1949 periods. Before 1949, print journalism theory, skills and history accounted for 289 books, 74.7 percent. History books were the most common theme (152 books, 39.3 percent). After 1949, these three categories accounted for 608 books, 74.9 percent. The most common theme after 1949 was print journalism skills (286 books, 35.2 percent); followed by print journalism history (214 books, 26.4 percent).

A further analysis of the books published shows that 358 books (28.7 percent) on print journalism theory, skills and history were published after 1978. Specifically, print journalism history books accounted for 171, 13.7 percent; print journalism books 141, 11.3 percent; and print journalism theory

books 46, 3.7 percent.

Of those books about journalism theories, 29 books (2.3 percent) were about the Soviet press and propaganda theories; seven books (0.6 percent) were about Marxist theories; and six books (0.5 percent) about Mao Zedong's journalism philosophy. The first book on Mao's journalism theory was published in July, 1983 when the Journalist Association of Hunan Province edited the Study of Mao Zedong Journalism Theory.

Of those books about print journalism skills, 214 books (17.2 percent) were on newswriting and reporting; 61 books (4.9 percent) were journalism tools such as dictionaries; 42 books (3.4 percent) were about training and use of newspaper correspondents and stringers; and 35 books (2.8 percent) were to be used to teach people how to establish newspapers and newsletters.

Of those books on print journalism history, 193 books (15.5 percent) were bibliographies and personal recollections; 129 books (10.4 percent) were newspapers' history; and 58 books (4.7 percent) were about war reporting.

Of those books about other communication areas, 79 books (6.3 percent) were collections of journalism essays; 64 books (5.1 percent) were about international news; 23 books (1.8 percent) were about photojournalism; and 16 books each (1.3 percent) about advertising and government news policy. Only few books were about circulation (12 books, 1.0 percent), journalism education (12 books, 1.0 percent), and law (9 books, 0.7 percent). Two books (0.2 percent) on mass communication theory were published in 1983 and 1984.

Books about other communication areas published before 1949 show 21 (32.8 percent) of the 64 international news books were published before then, while 41 (62.5 percent) were published after that year. Two international news books' publication date were not known. Further, 17 (42.5 percent) of the 41 international news books were published between 1978 and 1985.

Two international news books were published during the Cultural Revolution.

Sixteen books about advertising have been published since the first advertising book appeared in 1918. One book, Practical Advertising, published in 1982, was the only advertising book published after 1949. Thirteen (81.2 percent) of all advertising books were published before 1949. The publication dates for two other books were not known.

Books on journalism law show a similar pattern. Nine law books were published between 1903 and 1985. The first one came out in 1931. Six journalism law books were published before 1949. The book Journalism and Publication Law Around the World, published in 1981, was the only law book published after 1949. It covers the press laws of the Qing Dynasty, Yugoslavia, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Switzerland, Egypt, West Germany, United States, United Kingdom, France, Japan, Australia, India and Soviet Union.

Seven books about newspaper circulation were published after 1949, and only four were published before that year. Six circulation books were published between 1953 and 1958, and one, The Operation and Management of Newspapers, was published in 1982. One book's publication date was not known. However, books about the economics of the newspaper or media have yet to be published.

Eighty-two books on radio and television broadcasting were published between 1903 and 1985. The first radio broadcasting theory book was published in 1933; the first radio broadcasting skills book was published in 1937; and the first radio history book was published in 1929. The first television theory book was published in 1978, 20 years after television broadcasting began in 1958. The first television skills book also was published in 1978. The first television broadcasting history book was not published until 1985.

A further analysis shows that 35 (42.7 percent) of the 82 radio and television broadcasting books were about skills, followed by collected essays (19 books, 23.2 percent); history (15 books, 18.3 percent); and theory books (13 books, 15.8 percent).

Of the 82 books about radio and television broadcasting, 55 (67.1 percent) were about radio; 20 (24.4 percent) were about television; and seven (8.5 percent) were about radio and television.

Considering the late development of radio and television broadcasting, it is not surprising to find that 71 (86.6 percent) of the books were published after 1949, while nine books (11.0 percent) were published before 1949. Also, 52 (63.4 percent) of all the radio and television broadcasting books were published after 1978.

Table 8 and 9 about here

C. Authorship

Almost half of the books were written by a single author (652 books, 52.4 percent), followed by books listing institutions as authors (469 books, 37.7 percent); and books written by coauthors (116 books, 9.3 percent). The authors of eight books were not known.

In the pre-1949 period, about eight out of every ten books (295 books, 76.2 percent) were written by a single author. The remainder was by institutions (69 books, 17.8 percent) or by coauthors (17 books, 4.4 percent).

However, in the post-1949 period, more than half of the books were written by institutions (392 books, 48.3 percent) or coauthors (98 books, 12.1 percent) than a single author (320 books, 39.4 percent). A further breakdown of the post-1949 period shows that between 1949 and the outbreak of the Cultural Revolution in 1966, almost half of the books identified institutions as authors (142 books, 53.8 percent). All 49 books

published during the cultural revolution identified institutions as authors. However, after the cultural revolution, books by a single author (219 books, 44 percent) outnumbered books by institutions (201 books, 40.4 percent) and coauthors (78 books, 15.7 percent).

Table 10 about here

D. Translations

Almost one out of every ten books (139 books, 11.2 percent) published between 1903 and 1985 were from foreign sources. In fact, the first book on journalism was translated from Japanese. The origin of 24 books was not known.

Of those translated books published between 1903 and 1985, the Soviet Union led with 74 books (5.9 percent), followed by the United States (34 books, 2.7 percent); Japan (15 books, 1.2 percent); the United Kingdom (six books, 0.5 percent); and other countries (10 books, 0.8 percent).

Books translated from the Soviet Union were about print journalism history, 11 books; other communication areas, 12 books; and radio and television, three books. Books translated from the United States were about print journalism history, 14 books; other communication areas, nine books; and radio and television, one book.

Before 1949, only 17 (4.4 percent) of the 387 books published were from foreign sources. Eleven of these 17 books (64.7 percent) were published between 1903 and 1937. Japan led other countries with eight books; followed by four books from the United States; three books from the United Kingdom; and one from the U.S.S.R. The theme of the books translated from the Soviet Union were: print journalism theory, five; print journalism skills, two; and other communication area, one. The books from the United States were about print journalism theory, two; print journalism history, one; and other communication areas, one. The books from the United Kingdom were about other communication areas, two; and print journalism theory, one.

In the post-1949 period, 122 books (15.1 percent) were from foreign sources. More foreign books (67 books, 5.4 percent) were translated after 1978 than the first 16 years of the establishment of the communist regime (54 books, 4.3 percent). One book from foreign source was published during the Cultural Revolution.

Since 1949, the Soviet Union led other countries as the most used foreign source with 73 books, followed by the United States, 30 books; Japan, seven books; the United Kingdom, three books; and other country, nine books. In the early years of the Chinese communist regime (1949-1965), the Soviet Union was the leading foreign source with 50 books, followed by United States, two books, and United Kingdom and Japan, with one each. Books translated from the United States dominated after 1978, when China resumed ties with Western countries, with 28 books. This was followed by the Soviet Union, 23 books; Japan, seven books; and United Kingdom, one book.

Table 11 about here

E. Publishing Companies and Centers

Individual publishing companies other than the big name companies published three out of every ten books (375 books, 30.1 percent); followed by newspapers' publishing units (302 books, 24.3 percent); provincial publishing companies (144 books, 11.6 percent); journalism societies and associations publishing sponsors (129 books, 10.4 percent); and Xinhua Publishing House (129 books, 10.4 percent).

In the pre-1949 period, individual companies published almost half of the books (213 books, 55.0 percent). The other major publishing sponsors were newspapers (71 books, 18.3 percent); journalism societies and associations (36 books, 9.3 percent); and Commercial Press (30 books, 7.8 percent).

Publication sponsorship was different in the post-1949 period. Newspapers-affiliated publications were most common (223 books, 27.5 percent); followed by provincial publishers (143 books, 17.6 percent); Xinhua Books (129 books, 15.9 percent); journalism societies and associations (89 books, 11.0 percent); and university publishers (46 books, 5.7 percent). Other individual companies accounted for 144 books, 17.7 percent. Journalism books published by Commercial Press and Zhonghua Press declined after 1949, to seven books, 0.9 percent and eight books, 1.0 percent, respectively.

A further breakdown of the post-1949 period shows the three major publication sponsors were individual publishers, which published 83 books, or 17.0 percent; provincial publishers, 58 books, 22.0 percent; and newspapers' publishing units, 45 books, 17.0 percent. During the Cultural Revolution, newspapers published half of the books (25 books, 50.0 percent), followed by journalism societies and associations (14 books, 28 percent). After the cultural revolution, newspapers' publishing units were still the major sponsor (153 books, 30.7 percent). But Xinhua Publishing House, which had published 12 books between 1949 and 1977, since has become the second most important sponsor (129 books, 15.9 percent).

Table 12 about here

In terms of publishing centers, Beijing led with 484 books (38.9 percent) and Shanghai was second with 257 books (20.6 percent). Shanghai was the major center in the pre-1949 period (171 books, 44.2 percent). Beijing replaced Shanghai after 1949 with 438 books, 53.9 percent. Sichuan and Hubei province finished as a distant third and fourth with 78 books, 6.3 percent; and 57 books, 4.6 percent, respectively. The publication location of 117 books, 9.4 percent, was not known.

A further analysis shows that Shanghai was the major publishing center between 1903 and 1937 with 127 books, 10.2

percent. However, during the Sino-Japanese War and before 1949, other places published more titles than did Shanghai. Most of the books were published by individual publishers (92 books, 53.8 percent) and newspapers' publishing units (40 books, 23.4 percent) in Shanghai.

After 1949, Beijing took over Shanghai's role as the major publishing center with 121 books (45.8 percent), published between 1949 and 1965. About half of the books (227 books, 51.8 percent) were published by Xinhua Publishing House (124 books, 28.3 percent) and newspapers' publishing units (103 books, 23.5 percent), respectively. During the Cultural Revolution, other publication centers (28 books, 56.0 percent) published more books than Beijing (17 books, 34.0 percent). After the cultural revolution, Beijing resumed its role as the major publishing center (300 books, 60.2 percent); followed by other centers (173 books, 34.7 percent); and Shanghai (21 books, 4.2 percent). Since 1978, Xinhua Publishing House has been the leading publishing unit (117 books, 39.0 percent), followed by newspapers' publishing units (85 books, 28.3 percent).

Table 13 about here

F. Correlation Analysis

There is a strong positive correlation (rho=0.79) between the number of books published in general and number of journalism books published between 1950 and 1983. Also, there is a strong positive correlation (rho=0.90) between the number of students enrolled and the number of journalism books published between 1980 and 1985. However, there is almost a non-existent correlation (rho=0.04) between the number of journalism books published and the number of newspapers published between 1950 and 1983. Similarly, the correlation is low positive (rho=0.26) between the number of books published and number of newspapers published between 1950 and 1983.

Overall, the correlation with the national average income growth (NAIG) is positive, but the correlation is weak. The correlation between NAIG and books in general and journalism is both 0.21. The correlation between NAIG and newspapers is 0.07.

But there is a strong positive correlation (rho=0.76) between the number of publishing house in each location and the number of journalism books published between 1949 and 1985.

Table 14 about here

V. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Scope and Trend of Journalism Development in China

The coding categories used in the study, in a way, operationally defined the scope of journalism studies in China. As such, the scope of journalism studies from 1903 to 1985 is largely limited to print journalism theory, skills and history books. This has lagged behind the scope of U.S. journalism research described by Schramm in 1957, and still lags when compared to the communication experience summarized in Ferment in the Field, a 1983 stock taking of communication research in the United States and the world.

Yet China needs to widen its scope to incorporate more communication areas. Such a call has been made by Chinese journalism scholars (Lee, 1986). But the changes may require the recognition of journalism as a discipline--which Cai Yuanpei had tried to achieve by establishing the first journalism course in universities in 1918--and other structural changes. A heated debate reportedly started in 1985 on whether journalism could be considered a science.[26] Since 1986, radio and television broadcasters also advocated the acceptance of broadcasting as a science. So far no consensus has been reached, despite the rigorous persistence of Chinese broadcasters.[27]

A widening of journalism studies' scope, however, may be tied to the economic and structural changes now going on in China. For example, advertising only re-appeared when it was no

longer considered evil in the current economic structure. The fact that books on the operation and management of newspapers, and legal aspects of journalism are so few perhaps correspond to the lack of attention, and importance attached to these fields. At present, the obstacles the Chinese journalists have encountered during a more than five-year-long battle to draft the first journalism law is evidence of such feelings.[28] The facilitating developments Schramm talked about concerning the U.S. journalism development--specifically the importance attached to research by journalism schools--should exist before further development in China is possible.

Another journalism development trend in China that needs to be addressed is the understanding of radio and television broadcasting.[29] With television now reaching an estimated 600 million audience each night, its use and impact need to be better understood.[30] But books on television broadcasting began to appear only in the early 1980s. A few more years may be needed to build a more broader and stronger base.

B. The Political and Economic Impact on Journalism Development

Political and economic development has had a direct impact on journalism studies in China. Overall, more journalism books were published in the post-1949 period (1903-1985) than the pre-1949 period (1903-1948). But the total number of books published after 1949 was skewed by economic difficulties and political upheavals. The economic hardships brought by the failure of the First Five-Year Plan (1953-57) was concurrent with a decrease in the number of journalism book titles published. However, the political impact was more evident. For example, the number of journalism books published declined after the political purge of intellectuals in 1958. This declining trend continued through the Cultural Revolution until 1978. Particularly, the number of journalism books published during the Cultural Revolution was less than that during the Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945). When China was undergoing economic and political

reforms between 1978 and 1985, the number of journalism books increased significantly, accounting for four out of every ten such books published since 1903.

The economic and political impact before and after 1949 can also be seen in terms of authorship. When private profit-making businesses marked the economic system before 1949, eight out of every ten books were written by single authors. But after 1949, about half of the books identified institutions as authors. In addition to a change because of a new communist regime, this may be a political impact due either to the directives issued by party leaders in a system of highly centralized power like China, or to a fear of political repercussion. The fear of political consequences may be one of the reasons why all books published during the Cultural Revolution were by institutions, and most of the books published between 1949 and 1965 were by coauthors and institutions. A government policy of encouraging collective writing, however, must have had a direct impact.

This reasoning also may explain why most of the books published were concerned print journalism writing skills and press histories. These topics could be safe ground because newswriting seems apolitical, and history is mostly about pre-1949 periods. In addition, newswriting and reporting books could have a bigger market because they also can be used as textbooks.

C. Role of Foreign Influence

The findings show that Chinese journalism studies, as the development of Chinese newspapers, borrowed ideas from foreign countries. But the countries China turned to for aspirations changed in terms of cordiality of the relationship. In the pre-1949 period, books were mostly translated from Japan, the United States and the United Kingdom. But the Chinese Communist Party preferred the Soviet Union in the early years (1949-1977) and switched to the United States after adopting a more open and cordial policy with the Western countries in 1978. If this open

policy is not reversed, this trend is expected to continue in journalism and other developments in China. Interest in international journalism and communication increased after 1978 when more books on international communication were published.

D. Comparison with U.S. Journalism Studies

Weaver and Gray (1980) found that journalism and mass communication research in the United States has followed the interests and concerns of funding sources as well as the interests of the researchers. But, in China, political and economic factors have been the predominant forces. While U.S. funding sources may be foundations or academic institutions, political and party directives serve as the funding sources that determine the direction of research in China.

Overall, China's journalism development seems to share many similarities with that in the United States as described by Schramm in 1957. First, both in China and in the United States, there was a preponderance of biographies and history books for the reminiscence of great journalistic figures, moments and newspapers. This preponderance contributed to a lack of understanding between the press and society, and communication process and effect.

The problem in China has been a lack of the facilitating developments that helped journalism research grow in the United States. Research centers on communication only were recently developed. For example, the Public Opinion Research Institute was established in 1986 to study the communicator's effectiveness and receiver's impact from a policy decision perspective.[31] The Research Center for Communication and Modernization of China established in early 1988, and affiliated with the All-China Journalist Association, has yet to carry out major research projects.[32] But much more data now are available to do research in general.[33] For example, the many yearbooks and statistical books, such as China Journalism Yearbook, China Statistical Yearbook and China Urban Statistics,[34] can facilitate more

rigorous tests of research questions. Further, the increasing use of quantitative research methods, notably survey research, could improve accessibility and reliability of future studies.[35]

However, the more important facilitating development is strong and research-oriented journalism schools, as Schramm suggested. Journalism schools will have to be strengthened before they can play a role, similar to that found in the United States, of advancing journalism studies and research. Unlike the American counterparts, journalism schools in China do not place a great deal of concern on research. After a field visit with seven key journalism schools in China in summer 1987, Greenberg and Lau (1988) identified six problems in China's revolution in journalism and communication education.[36] They observed that Chinese journalism educators now place emphasis on the integration of social-science-based communication theory and rigorous research methodologies. However, they said, this is still more a wish than a reality. Further, research activity is not yet highly valued among faculty. So, the Chinese journalism education system may need to be overhauled itself before it can play a greater role in advancing journalism development.

Theoretically, the rapid increase in the number of journalism schools, teachers and student enrollments after 1978 can affect both the demand and supply of journalism books. Significantly, however, the contribution of journalism education institutions to journalism books has not increased substantially. Between 1978 and 1985, only 85 journalism books (17.1 percent) were published by university publishers and journalism societies and associations. Though the study finds a strong positive relationship between the number of student enrollment and the number of books published, the relationship between the increase of journalism schools and growth of journalism and communication research still is unknown. Future studies may provide an answer.

A more important and long-range facilitating development in China would be the extent to which some journalists and

journalism educators can succeed in their advocacy of journalism reforms. First, the new economic reform that allows profit-making by individuals and private businesses has promoted a faster and greater information flow.[37] Second, the need of the media to achieve financial sufficiency has made them more reader-oriented than leader-oriented.[38] So, there is a need to better understand the readers by conducting more readership and audience surveys using scientific research methods.[39] Third, the independence the Chinese journalists are seeking from the party and the anticipated protection of a press law may change the guiding principles of journalism in China.[40] The impact of these journalism reforms may in the future contribute to new kinds of journalism books.

Additionally, the influence by other countries can play a role in China's journalism development. Foreign input has been evident throughout the course of China's journalism development. A direct influence is the return of overseas-trained, mostly Western-trained, students who have been taught the new research theories and techniques. Moreover, continued participation in international communication conferences could give further inspiration. The growing number of books translated from foreign sources in 1978 suggests such influence has been taking place. So, the questions for Chinese journalism and communication scholars is: what can be adopted and what should be filtered out or modified to fit the Chinese situations? Can China import foreign techniques and skills without being influenced by the philosophy, or the two are inseparable? The answers to these questions will depend on the extent to which the current political, economic and journalism reforms can achieve.

E. Future of Journalism and Communication Studies in China

This study, which serves the "rear mirror function" in driving by using the perspective from behind to guide the direction forward, intends to identify the strengths and weaknesses of journalism development in China. Its findings

suggest that Chinese journalism development needs to broaden its focus beyond journalism theory, skills and history. Much of what Schramm suggested in 1957 can be used to suggest the following areas for improvement:

1. Journalism studies should go beyond print journalism theory, skills and history.
2. The relationship between mass media and the society should be better understood. Journalism and communication as a social process needs to be explored.
3. The processes and effects of communication should be better understood. Lasswell's (1971) much-quoted description of a one-way communication process: "Who says what in which channel to whom with what effect" still outlines the research direction for China. In other words, more studies are needed on (a) the communicator, (b) the message, (c) channel, (d) and, particularly, (e) the receiver--effects studies and media impact. Whether quantitative or qualitative methods should be used depends on the nature of each study.
4. Translations of foreign works should be continued. A more coordinated and comprehensive effort rather than a piece-meal approach is needed. Such an effort will require Chinese journalism scholars to keep abreast of the latest and most significant journalism and communication developments in other countries.
5. An integrated and inter-disciplinary approach should be adopted to understand and design the communication policy in China. More studies integrating journalistic, historical, economic, new technology and public policy perspectives are needed to prepare for the coming of an information age.

Although these areas do not cover all possibilities of programs in journalism and mass communication, they could widen the scope from a dominant journalism per se focus to a more macro and integrated analysis of the media. Also, these proposals shift the emphasis from the reminiscences of "great journalists

and newspapers" and a "how to" approach, to the understanding of the communication process and the message receivers--all with the aim of providing for a more effective communication process for China.

Endnotes:

1. China Journalism Yearbook 1982 listed a translation of a Japanese book, Journalism by a Japanese author and by the Commercial Press, as the first journalism book published in China. Its date of publication was given as 1902. But other sources said the books was published in 1903. So, the date of publication in the China Journalism Yearbook 1982 was corrected to 1903. See Kao Kuankang and Wu Wei, "Short Comment on Journalism," in Journalism University, no. 7, October 1984, p. 85-88.

2. The "Gang of Four" was the clique headed by Mao Zedong's wife, Jiang Qing. The four were arrested and imprisoned after Mao died in 1976.

3. Lee-hsia Hsu Ting's (1974) summary of the different stages shows similar developments between 1900 and 1949. The different stages according to Ting are: (1) the twilight of the Qing Dynasty, 1900-1911, with the reformist and revolutionary newspapers published abroad and in China; (2) the growing pains of the new republic, 1912-1927, the birth of communist journalism; (3) the Guomindang regime before the war, 1927-1937, leftist and communist literature and anti-Japanese literature; (4) the war and resistance, 1937-45, co-existence of Nationalist and Communist parties; (5) the aftermath of the war, 1945-1949, the communist takeover, and loss of control from the Nationalists. See Ting, Government Control of the Press in Modern China, 1900-1949.

4. The sizes of these newspapers and news agencies are not known. Vernon Nash (1931) reported that some news agencies could be just one-person office. See Nash, "Chinese Journalism in 1931," and "Journalism in China: 1933," Journalism Quarterly.

5. For a study of Taiwan's communication research development, see Leonard L. Chu, "To Open the Fourth Battleground for Chinese Communication Research," in Bao Xue (Journalism Studies), 1978, pp. 20-27. (In Chinese).

6. The economic indexes were reported in the China Handbook 1949- 1985, Beijing: Social Science Documents Publisher, 1986, pp. 30.

7. The publishing activities were reported in the China Publication Yearbook published since 1980, Beijing: Commercial Press.

8. New York Times March 24, 1988 reported that 40,000 PRC students are studying overseas, 27,000 are in the United States. It also reported that 36,000 PRC students have come to the United States since 1979 and 9,000 have returned to China. Ann Arbor News, November 13, 1988, reported that the PRC student number in the United States increased 26 percent in 1987. See also, Leo Orleans, Chinese Student in America: Policies, Issues, and Numbers, Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1988.

9. The number of teachers and students enrollment figures were compiled from China Journalism Yearbook from 1980 to 1986, Beijing: Chinese Social Science Publisher.

10. Zhang Zhonghou and Chen Jusheng, Introduction to Journalism, Beijing: People's Daily Publisher, 1983, p. 204. The significance of establishing this graduate journalism institute is two-fold: (1) the recognition of journalism as a social science discipline; (2) advanced training is available to journalists and communication students.

11. Journalism Front, July 1984.

12. People's Daily Overseas Edition, January 27, 1988, p. 4.

13. The first mass communication books was Communication Theories: An Introduction, Beijing: People's Daily Publisher, 1983.

14. The six volumes of Contemporary China Publication Historical Material by Zhang Jinglu covered 1919 to 1949, Beijing: Zhong Hua Books, 1954 to 1959.

15. In 1952, there were about 350 publishing companies, but most of them were very small and carried stationery. See China Publication Yearbook 1980, p. 20.

16. China Publication Yearbook 1985, p. 2, and Gao Guogan ed., China Press and Publishing Directory 1985, p. 8.

17. Ibid.

18. Gao Guoyan, op. cit., p. 18.

19. China Publication Yearbook 1980, p. 22.

20. China Publication Yearbook 1985, p. 2.

21. Ibid.

22. China Publication Yearbook 1980, p. 22.

23. The Sino-Japanese War broke out on July 7, 1937, but 1938 was used here to begin the Sino-Japanese war period because book publishing takes time and immediate impact was not seen.

24. It should be noted that book publication usually takes from one to two years from submission of manuscript to the retailer book shelves.

25. Intercoder reliability was readjusted after a consistent error by one of the coders was corrected in coding themes and publishing companies.

26. Yang Zhaolun, "Broadcasting is a Science," in China Journalism Yearbook 1987, Beijing: Chinese Social Science Publisher, 1987, pp. 63-64.

27. Ibid.

28. Chang Shan, "The Behind the Scene Reason For the Stranding of the Journalism Law," Nineties Magazine, December 1988, p. 7.

29. See Harald W. Jacobson, Television in the People's Republic of China, Washington, D.C.: Office of Research, United States Information Agency, 1988, for a review of the latest development.

30. The People's Daily Overseas Edition, January 27, 1988, p.4 reported a nationwide survey which found that 48 percent of households had television sets in 1987, and the audience totaled 600 million.

31. The Public Opinion Research Institute, affiliated with the College of Journalism of the People's University was established in October, 1985. Its research projects included studies of the public's attitude on economic issues and the students' demonstration in December, 1986. A more recent study was the survey of high level party leaders about the problems facing China. The information is based on an interview with Hairong Li, associate director of the institute in Beijing on June 16, 1987.

32. Personal communication with the research director of the Research Centre for Communication and Modernization of China, Dongsheng Fan, in November, 1988. According to a description of the centre, "its founding is to promote research on communication both at home and abroad, accelerate the reform and development of mass media and society as a whole, and enhance the positive impact of media in modernization process."

33. See Martin K. Whyte, "The Study of Mainland China: Sociological Research and the Minimal Data Problem," Contemporary China, vol. 1, March 1977, pp. 1-2; and Michel Oksenberg, "Sources and Methodological Problems in the Study of Contemporary China," in A. Doak Barnett ed., Chinese Communist Politics in Action, Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1964, pp. 577-606 for an analysis of the methodological problem in understanding China because of a lack of data.

34. China Journalism Yearbook edited by the Institute of Journalism of the Chinese Social Science Academy first was published in 1982, and is continuing. China Statistical Yearbook, complied by State Statistical Bureau of the People's Republic of China, was published by Hong Kong: Economic Information and Agency in 1982, and also continues. China Urban Statistics, was complied by the State Statistical Bureau, PRC, and was jointly published in 1985 by London: Longman Group Ltd., and Beijing: China Statistical Information and Consultancy Service Centre.

35. See Stanley Rosen and David Chu, Survey Research in the People's Republic of China, Washington, D. C.: Office of Research, 1987.

36. Greenberg and Lau identified six problems in China's journalism education. The other problems not mentioned in the text are: the library resources are few and outdated; qualified faculty are too few; and there are organizational inhibitions to change.

37. Cheng Mei and Tong Bin, Introduction to Journalism Theory, Beijing: Central Television University Publisher, 1986, p. 3.

38. Two papers included in a panel on journalism reform in China at the Association for Asian Studies annual meeting in Washington, D.C., in March, 1989 addressed this issue. See Tuen-yu Lau and Xinmin Qin, "Consumers and Reform: Readerships Surveys and Audience Input," and Judy Polumbaum, "Serving Two Masters: Leader-orientation and Reader-orientation in Chinese Newswork."

39. Since 1983, the China Journalism Yearbooks have devoted special sections to readership and audience survey results in different parts of China, and to emphasize the importance of understanding the needs of the message receivers. The official recognition of these surveys was an article written by An Kang, "We Need A Stronger Atmosphere For Readers, Listeners and Audience Survey," China Journalism Yearbook 1983, Beijing: Chinese Social Science Publisher, 1983, pp. 247-249.

40. Kenneth Starck and Yu Xu, "Loud Thunder, Small Raindrops: The Reform Movement and the Press in China," presented to the International Communication Division of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication annual convention, Portland, Oregon, July 2-5, 1988.

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Table 1

Estimated Growth of Daily Newspapers in China, 1913-1947

Year	Total No.of Papers
1913	139
1914	n.a.
1915	245
1916	289
1917	n.a.
1918	n.a.
1919	280
1920	n.a.
1921	550
1922	n.a.
1923	n.a.
1924	n.a.
1925	326
1926	628
1927	n.a.
1928	n.a.
1929	n.a.
1930	n.a.
1931	488
1932	867
1933	n.a.
1934	n.a.
1935	1763
1936	n.a.
1937	1014
1938	414
1939	400
1940	n.a.
1941	550
1942	n.a.
1943	n.a.
1944	1100
1945	n.a.
1946	984
1947	1781

Source: Ge Gongzheng, History of Chinese Journalism
Zeng Xubai, History of Chinese Journalism

Table 2

Economic Indexes of the Five-Year Plans in China, 1953-1985

	Percentage of Total Industrial & Agricultural Growth	Percentage of Average National Income Growth
First Five-Year Plan (1953-1957)	10.9%	8.9%
Second Five-Year Plan (1958-1962)	0.6%	-3.1%
Adjustment Period (1963-1965)	15.7%	14.7%
Third Five-Year Plan (1966-1970)	9.6%	8.3%
Fourth Five-Year Plan (1971-1975)	7.8%	5.5%
Fifth Five-Year Plan (1976-1980)	8.1%	6.0%
Sixth Five-Year Plan (1981-1985)	11.0%	9.7%

Source: The People's Republic of China Data Handbook, Beijing: Social Science Documents Publisher, 1986, pp. 257-258.

Table 3

Newspaper Growth in China, 1950-1984

Year	Total Number Copies Printed	Change% 1950-84	Change% 1960-70
1950	8.0		
1951	12.6	57.5	
1952	16.3	103.9	
1953	16.7	108.8	
1954	17.1	113.8	
1955	19.5	143.8	
1956	26.1	226.3	
1957	24.4	205.0	
1958	39.1	388.8	
1959	49.0	512.5	
1960	50.9	536.3	
1961	30.8	285.0	-39.5
1962	25.8	222.5	-49.3
1963	33.0	312.5	-35.2
1964	41.4	417.5	-18.7
1965	47.4	492.5	-6.9
1966	36.7	358.8	-27.9
1967	34.9	336.3	-31.4
1968	35.8	347.5	-29.7
1969	41.1	413.8	-19.3
1970	46.5	481.3	-8.6
1971	84.0	950.0	
1972	97.6	1120.0	
1973	100.5	1156.3	
1974	101.4	1167.5	
1975	109.7	1271.3	
1976	124.3	1453.8	
1977	123.7	1446.3	
1978	127.8	1497.5	
1979	130.8	1535.0	
1980	163.1	1938.8	
1981	159.2	1890.0	
1982	140.0	1650.0	
1983	187.0	2237.3	
1984	220.1	2651.6	

Note: total number of copies is in million copies

Sources: China Journalism Yearbook, 1983
China Publication Yearbook, 1983-1985

Table 4

Total Number of Books Published in China, 1950-1983

Year	Titles	Titles Change % 1950-83	New Titles	New Titles % 1950-83	New Change % 1950-83	Total*	Total Changes % 1950-83
1950	6408		6408			1.21	
1951	12655	97.5	12655	100.0	97.5	2.54	109.9
1952	11779	83.8	6799	57.7	6.1	2.91	140.5
1953	15520	142.2	8568	55.2	33.7	3.23	166.9
1954	15318	139.0	9309	60.8	45.3	4.37	261.2
1955	18573	189.8	11694	63.0	82.5	5.45	350.4
1956	25439	297.0	16751	65.8	161.4	9.07	649.6
1957	23758	270.8	16227	68.3	153.2	4.61	281.0
1958	38739	504.5	28358	73.2	342.5	12.18	906.6
1959	34859	444.0	23774	68.2	271.0	7.46	516.5
1960	23227	262.5	14848	63.9	131.7	6.91	471.1
1961	6930	8.1	3870	55.8	-39.6	2.11	74.4
1962	9687	51.2	5246	54.2	-18.1	2.45	102.5
1963	10868	69.6	6082	56.0	-5.1	4.61	281.0
1964	10891	70.0	6258	57.5	-2.3	7.44	514.9
1965	12566	96.1	8536	67.9	33.2	10.06	731.4
1966	6967	8.7	4596	66.0	-28.3	21.8	1701.7
1967	1539	-76.0	1066	69.3	-83.4	18.82	1455.4
1968	2004	-68.7	1465	73.1	-77.1	10.58	774.4
1969	1907	-70.2	1595	83.6	-75.1	7.28	501.7
1970	2642	-58.8	2088	79.0	-67.4	7.99	560.3
1971	3747	-41.5	3300	88.1	-48.5	10.9	800.8
1972	4188	-34.6	3604	86.1	-43.8	9.61	694.2
1973	5658	-11.7	4609	81.5	-28.1	12.24	694.2
1974	6684	4.3	5528	82.7	-13.7	13.83	1043.0
1975	7752	21.0	6684	86.2	4.3	17.6	1354.5
1976	7352	14.7	6268	85.3	-2.2	13.06	2544.6
1977	7374	15.1	6436	87.3	0.4	15.11	1148.8
1978	8941	39.5	7594	84.9	18.5	11.57	856.2
1979	11136	73.8	9524	85.5	48.6	12.91	966.9
1980	15669	144.5	13366	85.3	108.6	19.1	1478.5
1981	18776	193.0	15338	81.7	139.4	28.31	2239.7
1982	23957	273.9	18648	77.8	191.0	29.88	2369.4
1983	26573	314.7	20156	75.9	214.5	26.88	2121.5

*Total in million copies

Source: China Publication Yearbook, 1985

Table 5

Journalism Teachers and Students Growth in China, 1980-1986

YEAR	TEACHERS	UNDERGRAD	GRAD	TOTAL STUDENT	teachers %	undergrad %	grad %	total students%
1980	159	726	215	941	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1981	221	1068	258	1326	39.0	47.1	20.0	40.9
1982	295	1343	205	1548	85.5	85.0	-4.7	64.5
1983	361	1898	177	2075	127.0	161.4	-17.7	120.5
1984	466	2761	249	3010	193.1	280.3	15.8	219.9
1985	549	4177	329	4506	245.3	475.3	53.0	378.9
1986	767	4626	341	4967	382.4	537.2	58.6	427.8

Source: China Journalism Yearbook, 1982-1987

Table 6

Distribution of Publishing Houses in China, 1983

Provinces	Publishing Houses
Anhui	3
Fujian	4
Gansu	2
Guangdong	9
Guizhou	1
Hebei	3
Heilongjiang	8
Henan	5
Hubei	7
Hunan	6
Jiangsu	7
Jiangxi	1
Jilin	5
Liaoning	6
Qinghai	N.A.
Shaanxi	7
Shandong	9
Shanxi	1
Sichuan	9
Yunnan	3
Zhejiang	9
Guangxi	3
Neimenggu	5
Ningxia	1
Xinjiang	7
Xizang	1
Beijing	140
Shanghai	23
Tianjin	9

Source: China Publication Yearbook 1983

Table 7

Number of Books Published Per Year, 1903-1985

		Frequency	Percent
A.	Pre 1949 (1903-1948)	387	31.1
	1. Pre Sino-Japanese War (1903-1937)	213	17.1
	1903	4	0.3
	1904	0	0.0
	1905	0	0.0
	1906	0	0.0
	1907	0	0.0
	1908	1	0.1
	1909	0	0.0
	1910	0	0.0
	1911	0	0.0
	1912	0	0.0
	1913	1	0.1
	1914	1	0.1
	1915	1	0.1
	1916	0	0.0
	1917	2	0.2
	1918	2	0.2
	1919	2	0.2
	1920	2	2.2
	1921	1	0.1
	1922	4	0.3
	1923	5	0.4
	1924	4	0.3
	1925	9	0.7
	1926	4	0.3
	1927	9	0.7
	1928	10	0.8
	1929	8	0.6
	1930	21	1.7
	1931	13	1.0
	1932	15	1.2
	1933	17	1.4
	1934	10	0.8
	1935	13	1.0
	1936	30	2.4
	1937	24	1.9

Table 7 (Cont'd)

2.	Sino-Japanese War (1938-1945)	135	10.8
	1938	34	2.7
	1939	15	1.2
	1940	17	1.4
	1941	11	0.9
	1942	16	1.3
	1943	14	1.1
	1944	20	1.6
	1945	8	0.6
3.	Post-War (1946-1948)	39	3.1
	1946	13	1.0
	1947	17	1.4
	1948	9	0.7
B.	POST-1949 (1949-1985)	812	65.2
1.	New Communist Regime (1949-1965)	264	21.2
	1949	23	1.8
	1950	20	1.6
	1951	18	1.4
	1952	7	0.6
	1953	15	1.2
	1954	22	1.8
	1955	21	1.7
	1956	33	2.7
	1957	18	1.4
	1958	25	2.0
	1959	20	1.6
	1960	13	1.0
	1961	3	0.2
	1962	9	0.7
	1963	8	0.6
	1964	5	0.4
	1965	4	0.3

Table 7 (Cont'd)

2.	Cultural Revolution (1966-77)	50	4.0
	1966	1	0.1
	1967	1	0.1
	1968	1	0.1
	1969	0	0.0
	1970	3	0.2
	1971	2	0.2
	1972	3	0.2
	1973	8	0.6
	1974	2	0.2
	1975	13	1.0
	1976	8	0.6
	1977	8	0.6
3.	Post Revolution (1978-1985)	498	40.0
	1978	24	1.9
	1979	28	1.9
	1980	44	3.5
	1981	43	3.5
	1982	52	4.2
	1983	81	6.5
	1984	90	7.2
	1985	136	10.9
C.	YEAR UNKNOWN	46	3.7
	TOTAL	1,245	100.0

Table 8

Themes Of Books Published, 1903-1985

		Frequency	Percent
A.	PRINT THEORY	189	15.2
	1. General theory about China	146	11.7
	2. Soviet theory	29	2.3
	3. Marxist theory	7	0.6
	4. Maoist theory	6	0.5
	5. Foreign theory	1	0.1
B.	PRINT SKILLS	361	29.0
	1. Newswriting	214	17.2
	2. Correspondents	42	3.4
	3. Newspaper guides	35	2.8
	4. Journalism tools	61	4.9
	5. Bibliographies	9	0.7
C.	PRINT HISTORY	380	30.5
	1. Personal experience	193	15.5
	2. News history	129	10.4
	3. War reporting	58	4.7
D.	OTHER	233	18.7
	1. Journalism Essays	79	6.3
	2. International news	64	5.1
	3. Photojournalism	23	1.8
	4. Government news policy	16	1.3
	5. Advertising	16	1.3
	6. Circulation	12	1.0
	7. Journalism education	12	1.0
	8. Law	9	0.7
	9. Communication theory	2	0.2

Table 8 (Cont'd)

E.	RADIO AND TELEVISION	82	6.6
	1. General	7	0.6
	a. Theory	3	0.2
	b. Skills	1	0.1
	c. History	1	0.1
	d. Essays	2	0.2
	2. Radio	55	4.4
	a. Theory	5	0.4
	b. Skills	27	2.2
	c. History	13	1.0
	d. Essays	10	0.8
	3. Television	20	1.6
	a. Theory	5	0.4
	b. Skills	7	0.6
	c. History	1	0.1
	d. Essays	7	0.6
	TOTAL	1,245	100.0

Table 9

Theme of Books Published By Periods, 1903-1985

	Pre-1949 (1903-1949)			Post-1949 (1949-1985)				
Count Row pct Column pct Total pct	Pre-war (1903-1937)	Sino-Jap. war (1938-1945)	Post-war (1946-1948)	New Regime (1949-1965)	Cultural Revolution (1966-1977)	Post-Revolution (1978-1985)	Unknown	Row Total/%
Print Journalism Theory	48 25.4 22.5 3.9	16 8.5 11.9 1.3	7 3.7 17.9 0.6	54 28.6 20.5 4.3	8 4.2 16.0 0.6	46 24.3 9.2 3.7	10 5.3 21.7 0.8	189 15.2
Print Journalism Skills	33 9.1 15.5 2.7	19 5.3 14.1 1.5	14 3.9 35.9 1.1	111 30.7 42.0 8.9	34 9.4 68.0 2.7	141 39.1 28.3 11.3	9 2.5 19.6 0.7	361 29.0
Print Journalism Hisotry	73 19.2 34.3 5.9	70 18.4 51.9 5.6	9 2.4 23.1 0.7	42 11.1 15.9 3.4	1 0.3 2.0 0.1	171 45.0 34.3 13.7	14 3.7 30.4 1.1	380 30.5
Radio & Television	4 4.9 1.9 0.3	5 6.1 3.7 0.4	0 0.0 0.0 0.0	15 18.3 5.7 1.2	4 4.9 8.0 0.3	52 63.4 10.4 4.2	2 2.4 4.3 0.2	82 6.6
Other	55 23.6 25.8 4.4	25 10.7 18.5 2.0	9 3.9 23.1 0.7	42 18.0 15.9 3.4	3 1.3 6.0 0.2	88 37.8 17.7 7.1	11 4.7 23.9 0.9	233 18.7
Column Total %	213 17.1	135 10.8	39 3.1	264 21.2	50 4.0	498 40.0	46 3.7	1245 100.0

Cramer's V = 0.19335

Table 10

Types of Authorship, 1903-1985

	Pre-1949 (1903-1949)			Post-1949 (1949-1985)				
	Pre-war (1903-1937)	Sino-Jap. War (1938-1945)	Post-war (1946-1948)	New Regime (1949-1965)	Cultural Revolution (1966-1977)	Post-Revolution (1978-1985)	Unknown	Row Total/%
Single Author	173	98	24	101	0	219	37	652
	26.5	15.0	3.7	15.5	0.0	33.6	5.7	52.4
	81.2	72.6	61.5	38.3	0.0	44.0	80.4	
	13.9	7.9	1.9	8.1	0.0	17.6	3.0	
Coauthors	5	9	3	20	0	78	1	116
	4.3	7.8	2.6	17.2	0.0	67.2	0.9	9.3
	2.3	6.7	7.7	7.6	0.0	15.7	2.2	
	0.4	0.7	0.2	1.6	0.0	6.3	0.1	
Institutions	31	26	12	142	49	201	8	469
	6.6	5.5	2.6	30.3	10.4	42.9	1.7	37.7
	14.6	19.3	30.8	53.8	98.0	40.4	17.4	
	2.5	2.1	1.0	11.4	3.9	16.1	0.6	
Unknown	4	2	0	1	1	0	0	8
	50.0	25.0	0.0	12.5	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.6
	1.9	1.5	0.0	0.4	2.0	0.0	0.0	
	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	
Column Total	213	135	39	264	50	498	46	1245
%	17.1	10.8	3.1	21.2	4.0	40.0	3.7	100.0

Cramer's V = 0.26587

Table 11

Sources of Journalism Books Translated, 1903-1985

	Pre-1949 (1903-1949)			Post-1949 (1949-1985)				
	Pre-war (1903-1937)	Sino-Jap. War (1938-1945)	Post-war (1946-1948)	New Regime (1949-1965)	Cultural Revolution (1966-1977)	Post-Revolution (1978-1985)	Unknown	Row Total/%
China	196	130	33	209	49	420	45	1082
	18.1	12.0	3.0	19.3	4.5	38.8	4.2	86.9
	92.0	96.3	84.6	79.2	98.0	84.3	97.8	
	15.7	10.4	2.7	16.8	3.9	33.7	3.6	
Foreign	11	2	4	54	1	67	0	139
	7.9	1.4	2.9	38.8	0.7	48.2	0.0	11.2
	5.2	1.5	10.3	20.5	2.0	13.5	0.0	
	0.9	0.2	0.3	4.3	0.1	5.4	0.0	
Unknown	6	3	2	1	0	11	1	24
	25.0	12.5	8.3	4.2	0.0	45.8	4.2	1.9
	2.8	2.2	5.1	0.4	0.0	2.2	2.2	
	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.9	0.1	
Column Total	213	135	39	264	50	498	46	1245
%	17.1	10.8	3.1	21.2	4.0	40.0	3.7	100.0

Cramer's V = 0.15897

Table 12

Publishing Companies By Periods, 1903-1985

	Pre-1949 (1903-1949)			Post-1949 (1949-1985)				
	Pre-war (1903-1937)	Sino-Jap. War (1938-1945)	Post-war (1946-1948)	New Regime (1949-1965)	Cultural Revolution (1966-1977)	Post-Revolution (1978-1985)	Unknown	Row Total/%
Provincial Publishers	1	0	0	58	4	81	0	144
	0.7	0.0	0.0	40.3	2.8	56.3	0.0	11.6
	0.5	0.0	0.0	22.0	8.0	16.3	0.0	
	0.1	0.0	0.0	4.7	0.3	6.5	0.0	
University Publishers	5	0	0	19	0	27	0	51
	9.8	0.0	0.0	37.3	0.0	52.9	0.0	4.1
	2.3	0.0	0.0	7.2	0.0	5.4	0.0	
	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.0	2.2	0.0	
Zhonghua Press	7	0	1	6	0	2	0	16
	43.8	0.0	6.3	37.5	0.0	12.5	0.0	1.3
	3.3	0.0	2.6	2.3	0.0	0.4	0.0	
	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.0	
Commercial Press	21	8	1	5	0	2	4	41
	51.2	19.5	2.4	12.2	0.0	4.9	9.8	3.3
	9.9	5.9	2.6	1.9	0.0	0.4	8.7	
	1.7	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.3	
Joint Publishing Company	0	0	0	14	0	4	0	18
	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.8	0.0	22.2	0.0	1.4
	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.8	0.0	
	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	
Newspapers & tv stations	43	19	9	45	25	153	8	302
	14.2	6.3	3.0	14.9	8.3	50.7	2.6	24.3
	20.2	14.1	23.1	17.0	50.0	30.7	17.4	
	3.5	1.5	0.7	3.6	2.0	12.3	0.6	
Xinhua Books	0	0	0	12	0	117	0	129
	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.3	0.0	90.7	0.0	10.4
	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	0.0	23.5	0.0	
	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	9.4	0.0	
Journalism Society	23	12	1	17	14	58	4	129
	17.8	9.3	0.8	13.2	10.9	45.0	3.1	10.4
	10.8	8.9	2.6	6.4	28.0	11.6	8.7	
	1.8	1.0	0.1	1.4	1.1	4.7	0.3	
Other	99	87	27	83	7	54	18	375
	26.4	23.2	7.2	22.1	1.9	14.4	4.8	30.1
	46.5	64.4	69.2	31.4	14.0	10.8	39.1	
	8.0	7.0	2.2	6.7	0.6	4.3	1.4	

Table 12 (Cont'd)

Unknown	14	9	0	5	0	0	12	40
	35.0	22.5	0.0	12.5	0.0	0.0	30.0	3.2
	6.6	6.7	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	26.1	
	1.1	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.0	
Column Total	213	135	39	264	50	498	46	1245
%	17.1	10.8	3.1	21.2	4.0	40.0	3.7	100.0

Cramer's V = 0.29987

Table 13

Publishing Centers By Periods, 1903-1985

	Pre-1949 (1903-1949)			Post-1949 (1949-1985)				
	Pre-war (1903-1937)	Sino-Jap. War (1938-1945)	Post-war (1946-1948)	New Regime (1949-1965)	Cultural Revolution (1966-1977)	Post-Revolution (1978-1985)	Unknown	Row Total/%
Beijing	28	11	2	121	17	300	5	484
	5.8	2.3	0.4	25.0	3.5	62.0	1.0	38.9
	13.1	8.1	5.1	45.8	34.0	60.2	10.9	
	2.2	0.9	0.2	9.7	1.4	24.1	0.4	
Shanghai	127	28	16	49	5	21	11	257
	49.4	10.9	6.2	19.1	1.9	8.2	4.3	20.6
	59.6	20.7	41.0	18.6	10.0	4.2	23.9	
	10.2	2.2	1.3	3.9	0.4	1.7	0.9	
Other	23	57	15	79	28	173	12	387
	5.9	14.7	3.9	20.4	7.2	44.7	3.1	31.1
	10.8	42.2	38.5	29.9	56.0	34.7	26.1	
	1.8	4.6	1.2	6.3	2.2	13.9	1.0	
Unknown	35	39	6	15	0	4	18	117
	29.9	33.3	5.1	12.8	0.0	3.4	15.4	9.4
	16.4	28.9	15.4	5.7	0.0	0.8	39.1	
	2.8	3.1	0.5	1.2	0.0	0.3	1.4	
Column Total	213	135	39	264	50	498	46	1245
%	17.1	10.8	3.1	21.2	4.0	40.0	3.7	100.0

Cramer's V = 0.39754

Table 14

Correlation Analysis

Variables	Spearman Rank-order Correlation
Book & Newspapers	0.26
Books & Journalism Books	0.79
Newspaprs & Journalism Books	0.04
Income & Books	0.21
Income & Newspapers	0.07
Income and Journalism Books	0.21
Journalism Student enrollment & Journalism Books	0.90
Publishing Houses & Journalism Books (1949-1985)	0.76

Appendix I

Codebook

Journalism Studies in China, 1903-1985.

(Adopted and revised from Journalism Quarterly and Newspaper Research Journal indexes classification)

I. THEME (Determine the focus by the book title).

Print Media--Newspapers, Magazines, Correspondents, News Agencies

A. Journalism Theory (This includes books which are titled journalism theory, fundamentals of journalism theory, and survey of journalism. It also includes books about theory of propaganda. Journalism refers to print media--newspapers and magazines, it does not include broadcasting).

1. General theory about China (Journalism theory excluding those book titles which indicate Soviet, Marxist or Maoist journalism theory). It includes theory on press criticism and self criticism (This is a sub-category within the general theory. If the book title carries the title about press criticism and self criticism specifically, it falls under this category).

2. Soviet (If the book title carries the name Soviet, such as Lenin, Stalin, this is coded as Soviet journalism theory. Karl Marx is not included in this category.)

3. Marxist (If the title uses the name of Karl Marx or labeled Marxist journalism theory, it falls under this category).

4. Maoist (If the title uses the name of Mao Ze-dong, it falls under this category).

5. Foreign Theory (All foreign journalism theory not under Soviet and Marxist.)

B. Journalism Skills (This refers to newspaper and magazines skills, tools and study aids for journalists to perform their duties, training of correspondents and war reporting).

1. Newspaper writing, editing and reporting (This refers to all book titles which identifies writing, editing and reporting in the book titles. It does not include magazines. But it also includes news commentary writing skills, international news writing skills, newspaper designs, description of reporters, collected essays of writing examples. If the book title did not specify whether it is for newspapers or magazines, it falls under this category).

2. Magazine writing, editing (This refers to all book titles which specifically mention the word magazine in the book title).

3. Use of correspondents, operation and management, and correspondents collected essays (This is about how to establish the correspondents systems for news coverage, how to make use of them, and the collected essays by them.)

4. Guide on how to establish newspapers (This is about books which says clearly in the title such as how to establish a newspaper, how to establish blackboard newspaper.)

5. journalism tools/dictionary (This is about the tool, aid and dictionary. It includes those books such as how to read a newspaper. But it does not include those books about broadcasting.)

6. Bibliography/book review/Index (Those titles which says bibliography, book reviews, or index to other material. It also includes journalism yearbooks. This does not include the commeoration books of newspapers and publication.)

7. Photojournalism (This includes history, current and skills about photojournalism.)

C. Journalism History (this includes newspaper and magazine history, biographies, personality profiles, personal experience recollection, and books about the anniversary of newspapers and publication. This category does not include broadcasting history, biography, and photojournalism.)

1. Newspaper history (this includes the history of newspapers and news agencies. If the book title indicates it is about history but without mentioning whether it is newspapers or magazines, it falls under this category).

2. Magazine history (this includes the books titles which identify the word magazine).

3. biography/personality profile/personal experience recollections/personal literary essays/travelogues (This is about the profile and history of current and historical journalism figures, the recollection, literary essays and travelogue by journalists and writers.)

5. war reporting, correspondents and propaganda (This is about titles which mention war, war correspondents and its relationship with propaganda.)

This following are classified as OTHER aspect of journalism studies in the data analysis.

D. Journalism Economics (this includes circulation, management, economic analysis of newspapers and magazines).

E. Journalism education (This is about journalism education, its history, and survey of the current status.)

H. Government News Policy and Documents (If the title says it is about government news policy and documents about conferences on news policy, it falls under this category.)

I. Journalism Collected Essays (This refers to the books which is titled journalism collected essays. These books are usually a collection of different essays on various aspects of journalism. It includes quarterly journals. It does not include those books about personal experience and recollections).

I. Law (This refers to journalism laws).

J. Communication theory (This is for book titles using the word communication and mass communication. It does not include journalism theory.)

K. Advertising (All aspects of advertising).

L. International Journalism (This refers to books surveys of journalism and media situations outside China and the coverage of international news content and international communicatin issues.)
This is about the coverage of international news content, presentation and skills. It also includes the issues in international communication. It includes the survey of foreign journalism and media and dictionary.

Broadcasting--television and radio

A. Broadcasting theory (This includes all theories about and survey of radio and tv.)

1. General (If the book title does not clearly say whether it is about radio or television).

2. Radio (If the title clearly identifies radio is the focus).

3. TV (If the title clearly identifies tv is the focus).

B. Broadcasting skills (This includes the news and script writing, editing for radio and television, tools and dictionaries).

1. General (If the book title does not clearly say whether it is about radio or tv).

2. Radio (If the title clearly identifies radio is the focus).

3. TV (If the title clearly identifies tv is the focus).

C. Broadcasting history (This refers to the history of television and radio).

1. General (If the book title does not clearly say whether it is about radio or tv).

2. Radio (If the title clearly identifies radio is the focus).

3. TV (If the title clearly identifies tv is the focus).

D. Broadcasting collected essays (This refers to book titles which use the title broadcasting collected essays, which is collection of essays on various aspects of broadcasting).

1. General (If the book title does not clearly say whether it is about radio or tv).

2. Radio (If the title clearly identifies radio is the focus).

3. TV (If the title clearly identifies tv is the focus).

E. Other aspects of broadcasting which do not fall under the categories above.

II. Author (code the name of authors listed. If it is a translation, code the translators. If name of editor is given in addtion to the name of authors, code only the authors.)

1. Single author (only one name is listed as the author)

2. Coauthors (more than one author)

3. institution (if names of authors are not listed except the name of institution)

4. author/coauthors + institution (both names of authors and name of institution are mentioned.)

5. unknown

III. Country Original of the Book

1. China
2. Translation
   a. Japan
   b. Soviet Union.
   c. U.K.
   d. U.S.
   e. other
   f. unknown

III. Year

List only last two digits of the year. Use 00 for unknown.

IV. Publisher (identify the publisher if known)

1. provincial people's publishers
2. university publishers
3. Zhong-hua press
4. Commercial Press
5. Joint Publishing Company
6. Newspaper's own publication or broadcasting station's own publication.
7. Xinhua News Agency and Xinhua Books
8. journalism society, journalist association's own publication
9. Other
10. Unknown

V. Origin of Publisher (other than the first three, use the name of the province to record the origin of publisher.)

See province list attached.

Appendix II

China Provinces and Autonomous Regions List

1. Anhui
2. Fujian
3. Gansu
4. Guangdong
5. Guizhou
6. Hebei
7. Heilongjiang
8. Henan
9. Hubei
10. Hunan
11. Jiangsu
12. Jiangxi
13. Jilin
14. Liaoning
15. Qinghai
16. Shaanxi
17. Shandong
18. Shanxi
19. Sichuan
20. Yunnan
21. Zhejiang

Autonomous Regions

22. Guangxi
23. Neimenggu
24. Ningxia
25. Xinjiang
26. Xizang

Centrally Administered Cities:

27. Beijing
28. Shanghai
29. Tianjin

30. unknown

31. Hong Kong